

Search Request: K-ASPIRA
Search Results: 34 Entries Found

DPAC
Keyword Index

DATE	TITLE:	AUTHOR:
29 1971	The Puerto Ricans in Newark, N.J. : aqui s	Hidalgo, Hilda CP
30 1970	Aspira : an inquiry into the development o	Mann, Lorraine Ell QC
31 1968	"Hemos trabajado bien;" a report	National Conferenc CP
32 1900	El legado a Puerto Rican legacy <visual>	CP
33 19uu	Annual report <serial>	Aspira of America CP
34 19uu	Aspira, New York, Inc <serial>	Aspira of New York CP

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*Understanding & Managing
Public Org's.*

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Search Request: K=ASPIRA
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DPAC
Keyword Index

	DATE	TITLE:	AUTHOR:	
15	1982	Schooling, job opportunities, and ethnic m		CP
16	1979	Aspira v. Board of Education of the City o	Santiago, Isaura	CC
17	1979	Aspira v. Board of Education of the City o	Santiago Santiago,	CP
18	1979	Metas <serial>		QC
19	1979	Metas <serial>		CP
20	1979	Metas <serial>		HC
21	1978	A community's struggle for equal education	Santiago Santiago,	BC
22	1978	A community's struggle for equal education	Santiago Santiago,	CP
23	1977	Aspira versus Board of Education of the Ci	Santiago, Isaura	BC
24	1977	Aspira versus Board of Education of the Ci	Santiago, Isaura	QC
25	1977	Aspira versus Board of Education of the Ci	Santiago, Isaura	HO
26	1977	Aspira versus Board of Education of the Ci	Santiago, Isaura	CP
27	1973	Proceedings of the Aspira National Bilingu	National Conferenc	CP
28	1971	"...and others" : a report card for the Ne	Liem, G. Ramsay (G	BC

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Keyword Index

	DATE	TITLE:	AUTHOR:	
1	1990	The Aspira five cities high school dropout	Fernandez, Ricardo	LE
2	1990	The Aspira five cities high school dropout	Fernandez, Ricardo	CP
3	1990	Latinos and the dropout crisis : the commu	Aspira Association	LE
4	1990	Latinos and the dropout crisis : the commu		CP
5	1989	Five cities high school dropout study : ch		BC
6	1987	Aspira news <serial>		CP
7	1987	Northeast Hispanic needs : a guide for act	ASPIRA Institute f	CP
8	1987	Northeast Hispanic needs : a guide for act	ASPIRA Institute f	LG
9	1987	Northeast Hispanic needs: a guide for acti	ASPIRA Institute f	QB
10	1986	The Education of Hispanic Americans : a ch		CP
11	1983	An evaluation of Aspira of Puerto Rico, In	Jimenez, Perpetua	CP
12	1983	Racial and ethnic high school dropout rate	Aspira of New York	BC
13	1983	Racial and ethnic high school dropout rate	Calitri, Ronald	HC
14	1983	Racial and ethnic high school dropout rate	Aspira of New York	CP

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NEXT COMMAND:

Author: Mann, Lorraine Ellen.

Title: Aspira : an inquiry into the development of an indigenously
led Puerto Rican group / Lorraine Ellen Mann.

Publisher: January, 1970.

Description: 125 leaves ; 28 cm.

Notes: Typewritten manuscript.
Thesis (M.A.) Queens College. Department of Sociology.

Additional authors:
Queens College (New York, N.Y.) Masters theses (Sociology)

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Mann, Lorraine Ellen

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Symbolic Crusade; status politics and the
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CORE's influence was reflected in both the
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DIAGNOSING ORGANIZATIONS

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Michael I. Harrison

Applied Social Research Methods Series
Volume 8

Using the Open System Model

ation and explain that your reports will only be
your interest in becoming a client—in the sense of
your project—explain that you will be glad to
contact person only, provided that the anonymity
is preserved. During these discussions try to learn
contact person's job, his or her view of organizational
your project, and how much help you can expect
e, ask your contact person to take you on a tour of
quarters or physical plant, and to try to give you an
on's operations.

are going to conduct an organizational diagnosis.
ing your "scouting" that bears on items 1 and 2 in
listed in the chapter? Pay particular attention to
erson defined the organization's problems and
ve interpretations occur to you? Summarize your
findings so far in a report on the following topics:

organization and the contact person (including
them)
including your feelings and behavior and those of

n's view of the organization's strengths, weak-
blems, desired state (see topic 1 of the Inter-
g of these issues (see topic 2 in the Interpretive
ts about conducting a diagnosis—topics, methods,
uals to be included

A model of organizations as open systems is presented that can help practitioners choose topics for diagnosis, develop criteria for assessing organizational effectiveness, and decide what steps, if any, will help clients solve problems and enhance organizational effectiveness. A list of Basic Organizational Information to gather at the start of a diagnosis is provided, and methods are discussed for gathering and analyzing data in both broad and focused diagnoses.

THE ORGANIZATION AS AN OPEN SYSTEM

The open systems approach provides practitioners with an abstract model that is applicable to any kind of organization and to divisions or departments within them (Beer, 1980; Hall, 1982; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Kotter, 1978; Miles, 1980; Nadler & Tushman, 1980). One useful version of this model is shown in Figure 1.

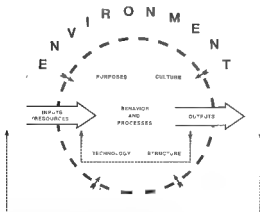
System Elements

Here are the main elements in the model and their key sub-components:

Inputs (or resources)—This includes the raw materials, money, people ("human resources"), information, and knowledge that an organization obtains from its environment and that contribute to the creation of its outputs.

Outputs—This includes the products, services, and ideas that are the outcomes of organizational action. An organization transfers its main outputs back to the environment and uses others internally.

Technology—This includes the methods and processes for transforming resources into outputs. These methods may be mental (e.g., exercising medical judgment), as well as physical (e.g., drug therapy), and mechanical (e.g., computerized data processing).



NOTE: Dotted lines show feedback loops

Figure 1: Organizations as Open Systems

Environment—The *Task Environment* includes all the external organizations and conditions that are directly related to an organization's main operations and its technologies. They include suppliers, unions, customers, clients, regulators, competitors, markets for products and resources, and the state of knowledge concerning the organization's technologies. The *General Environment* includes institutions and conditions that may have infrequent or long-term impacts on the organization and its task environment, including the economy, the legal system, the state of scientific and technical knowledge, social institutions such as the family, population distribution and composition, the political system, and the national culture within which the organization operates.

Purpose—This includes the strategies, goals, objectives, plans, and interests of the organization's dominant decision makers. *Strategies* are overall routes to goals, including ways of dealing with the environment (e.g., strategy for expanding operations into the construction business); *goals* are desired end states (e.g., becoming the leading construction firm in the South), whereas *objectives* are specific targets and indicators of goal attainment (e.g., 5% growth per year). *Plans* specify courses of

action toward some end. Purposes may be explicit or implicit in the decision makers' actions. They are the outcomes of conflict and negotiation among powerful parties within and outside the organization.

Behavior and processes—This includes the prevailing patterns of behavior, interactions, and relationships between groups and individuals—including cooperation, conflict, coordination, communication, controlling and rewarding behavior, influence and power relations, supervision, leadership, decision making, problem solving, planning, goal setting, information gathering, self-criticism, evaluation, and group learning.

Culture—This includes shared norms, beliefs, values, symbols, and rituals relating to key aspects of organizational life, such as the nature and identity of the organization, the way work is done, the value and possibility of changing or innovating, and relationships between lower and higher ranking members.

Structure—This includes enduring relations between individuals, groups, and larger units—including role assignments (job descriptions, authority, responsibility privileges attached to positions), grouping of positions in divisions, departments and other units, standard operating procedures, established mechanisms for handling key processes such as coordination (e.g., committees, weekly meetings); human resources mechanisms (career lines, reward, evaluation procedures); actual patterns (e.g., informal relations, cliques, coalitions, power distribution) that may differ from officially mandated ones.

Key Features of the Model

The model contains several important ideas for diagnosis

- (1) *External conditions influence the flow of inputs (resources) to organizations, affect the reception of outputs, and can directly affect internal operations*—for instance, when regulatory agencies define production standards. Figure 1 depicts the possibility for direct impacts on internal operations by showing a broken, permeable boundary around the organization. Feedback from outputs to inputs occurs when responses by customers or clients to products or services affect resource flows; for instance, when demand for cigarettes dropped among American men because they recognized the health hazards of smoking.
- (2) *Organizations use many of their products, services, and ideas as inputs to organizational maintenance or growth* (as shown in Figure 1 by the feedback loop within the organizational boundary). A computer firm, for example, may use its own machines and software, and a university may employ its doctoral students as instructors. The

alumni

human consequences of work—including members' satisfactions with the quality of their working life and their motivations to contribute to the organization—are another form of output that has important internal impacts (see Chapter 3).

- (3) *Organizations are influenced by their members as well as their environments.* The employees and clients who enter an organization may contribute to its operations, resist them, or change them from within. In organizations in which the main job involves educating, classifying, or treating people, the same people who enter it are ultimately transferred back to the environment—hopefully healthier, wealthier, or wiser. While these clients are being treated or receiving services, they may change or shape the very practices that were designed to influence them. Current values and standards increasingly urge managers to consider what is good for their employees and clients and not to treat them as inanimate resources (e.g., Business Week, 1981a).
- (4) *The eight system elements and their subcomponents are interrelated and influence one another.* An organization's culture and structure affect members' behavior, but their behavior also shapes the structure and the culture. Environments shape purposes, but organizations also shape their environments. Practitioners should therefore be on the watch for nonobvious relations between system features so that they can better anticipate the likely impacts of changes in some part of the organization. They should consider the possibility, for example, that managers may acquire a new computer system to enhance efficiency in record-keeping and accounting, but that once the system is installed, people will start looking for new ways to use it. Thus, technology may shape objectives as well as responding to them.
- (5) *Organizations are constantly changing as relationships among their system elements shift.¹* An organization's responses to internal and external changes depend on members' interpretations of these changes and their decisions about how to deal with them. Information about internal and external developments flows through both official and unofficial channels. Small changes in one part of the system may not require more than routine adjustments in other elements, but major changes in one element can set off a series of changes in others. For instance, if a firm hires people with somewhat less training than past recruits, current procedures for placing and training new employees may still be used with slight adjustments. On the other hand, if the firm sets up a branch overseas and begins to lure people who have radically different backgrounds than those employed at home, major shifts may be needed in the technology, structure, and processes in order to adapt to the employees' skills, experience, and work styles.

¹ The assumption that systems seek a state of "balance" has been widely criticized (e.g., Abrahamson, 1977) and has been avoided here.

- (6) *An organization's success depends heavily on its ability to adapt to its environment—or to find a favorable environment in which to operate—as well as on its ability to fit people into their roles in the organization, conduct its transformative processes, and manage its operations* (Katz & Kahn, 1978). These "system needs" do not necessarily correspond to the interests or priorities of top management (see "How to Choose Effectiveness Criteria," later in this chapter).
- (7) *Any level or unit within an organization can be viewed as a system.* So far the model has only been applied to the total organization, but a major division or branch within an organization can also be viewed as a system having all of the elements and features mentioned above. Even a single department or work group within a department can be analyzed as a subsystem embedded within the larger systems. The broader organizational conditions shape the operations of such subunits but do not fully determine them.

Using the System Model

The open system model provides practitioners with a comprehensive yet flexible guide to examining the main features of an organization and understanding their relationships.

Basic organizational information. Drawing on the model (and on Levinson, 1972, pp. 55–59), we generated the following list of basic information about a client organization (or subunit) to gather at the beginning of a diagnosis. After obtaining the overview provided by this information, consultants can decide what topics, if any, they want to study in greater depth. The basic information that is most readily available should be gathered during scouting, and the rest of this information should be collected as quickly as possible after contracting to conduct a diagnosis.

Basic Organizational Information

- (1) *Outputs*—main products or services, volume of sales, production, services delivered etc., human "outputs" (indications of satisfaction and commitment such as absenteeism, turnover).
- (2) *Purposes*—official statements of goals and mission, actual priorities as indicated by budget allocations to divisions, programs (e.g., percentage of budget allocated to research and development).
- (3) *Inputs*—financial assets, capital assets including real estate; physical plant, equipment (amount, condition e.g., age, degree of obsolescence, state of repair); revenues and allocations from funding sources (e.g., for public agencies); human resources—numbers of employees by job category; social and educational backgrounds, training and previous experience.

TABLE 2
Effectiveness Criteria

<i>Type</i>	<i>Operational Definitions</i>
(1) Output Goals	
Goal Attainment	Success/Failure (e.g., rocket launching)
Quantity of Outputs	Productivity (units produced, hours of services provided, values of sales, services sometimes per work unit or per time period), profits (revenues minus costs), revenues as percentage of investment, percentage of target group reached by services, messages
Quality of Outputs	Number of rejects, returns, complaints, client, customer satisfaction, expert rating of services (e.g., in health education) or work performance (e.g., in manufacturing, military), impact of services or products on target population (e.g., impact of antilitter campaign)
(2) Internal System State	
Costs of Production or Services	Efficiency (ratio of output value to costs—e.g., labor, equipment—with constant quality), wastage, downtime
Human Outcomes	Employee satisfactions with pay, working conditions and relationships; motivation (disposition to work); work effort (observed, reported); low absenteeism, lateness, and turnover; health and safety of workforce
Consensus/Conflict	Agreement on goals and procedures, cohesion (mutual attraction, and identification with work group, and organization); cooperation (reported/observed) within and between units; few strikes, work stoppages, disputes, and feuds
Work and Information Flows	Smooth flow of products, ideas and information, few snags, foul-ups, misunderstandings, rich, multidirectional communication, accurate analysis of information

USING THE OPEN SYSTEM MODEL

Interpersonal Relations	High levels of trust; open communication; feelings, needs between ranks, de-emphasis of status differences
Participation	Subordinates participate in making decisions affecting them, diffusion of power and authority
Fit	Compatibility of requirements of system elements
(3) Adaptation and Resource Position	
Resources-quantity	Size of organization (employees, cash, physical assets); resource flows (e.g., investment grants and budget support in nonprofit organizations)
Resources-quality	Human capital (experience, and training of employees); desirability of clients (e.g., selectiveness of college admissions); reputation of staff
Legitimacy	Support and approval by community and public bodies, public image, compliance with standards of legal, regulatory, professional bodies (e.g., government publication control standards accreditation of college)
Competitive/Strategic Position	Market share, ranking among competitors; size, volume of business, reputation within the field or industry; full use of capacity; exploit external opportunities
Impact on Environment	Ability to shape demand, government behavior of competitors, suppliers
Adaptiveness	Adjustment to changes in inputs and demands for outputs, flexibility in handling crises, surprises
Innovativeness	Number, quality of new products, services; procedures, incorporation of new technologies, management practices
Fit	Compatibility of internal system elements with requirements, constraints of environment

TABLE 2
Effectiveness Criteria

Type	Operational Definitions
<i>Output Goals</i>	
Goal Attainment	Success/Failure (e.g., rocket launching)
Quantity of Outputs	Productivity (units produced, hours of services provided, values of sales, services—sometimes per work unit or per time period); profits (revenues minus costs); revenues as percentage of investment, percentage of target group reached by services, messages.
Quality of Outputs	Number of rejects, returns, complaints, client, customer satisfaction, expert rating of services (e.g., in health education) or work performance (e.g., in manufacturing, military); impact of services or products on target population (e.g., impact of antiflitter campaign).
<i>Internal System State</i>	
Costs of Production or Services	Efficiency (ratio of output value to costs—e.g., labor, equipment—with constant quality); wastage, downtime
Human Outcomes	Employee satisfactions with pay, working conditions and relationships, motivation (disposition to work), work effort (observed, reported), low absenteeism, lateness, and turnover, health and safety of workforce
Consensus/Conflict	Agreement on goals and procedures, cohesion (mutual attraction, and identification with work group, and organization), cooperation (reported/observed) within and between units; few strikes, work stoppages, disputes, and feuds.
Work and Information Flows	Smooth flow of products, ideas and information, few snags, foul-ups, misunderstandings, rich, multidirectional communication, accurate analysis of information

Interpersonal
Relations

High levels of trust, open communication of feelings, needs between ranks, de-emphasis of status differences

Participation

Subordinates participate in making decisions affecting them, diffusion of power and authority

Fit

Compatibility of requirements of system elements

(3) *Adaptation and Resource Position*

Resources-quantity

Size of organization (employees, cash, physical assets), resource flows (e.g., investment, grants and budget support in nonprofit organizations).

Resources-quality

Human capital (experience, and training of employees); desirability of clients (e.g., selectiveness of college admissions); reputation of staff

Legitimacy

Support and approval by community and public bodies; public image; compliance with standards of legal, regulatory, professional bodies (e.g., government pollution control standards, accreditation of college).

Competitive/
Strategic Position

Market share, ranking among competitors in size, volume of business, reputation within the field or industry, full use of capacities to exploit external opportunities.

Impact on
Environment

Ability to shape demand, government action, behavior of competitors, suppliers.

Adaptiveness

Adjustment to changes in inputs and demands for outputs, flexibility in handling crises, surprises

Innovativeness

Number, quality of new products, services, procedures; incorporation of new technologies, management practices.

Fit

Compatibility of internal system elements with requirements, constraints of environment

Hell & Quinn
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By Reginald
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THE EFFECTS OF HIERARCHICAL INTER ORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONSHIPS
ON ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE

by

Melissa J. Sisco

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
(Psychology)
in the University of Michigan
1996

Doctoral Committee

Professor Jeffrey A. Alexander, Co-chair
Associate Professor Thomas A. D'Aunno, Co-chair
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CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW ON H IORS

This chapter discusses theoretical perspectives on hierarchical inter-organizational relationships (HIORs). The first section of this chapter focuses on exchange and resource dependence theories to examine HIORs and their effects on organizational performance. Following this discussion, I provide a critique of this literature. I argue that literature on IORs has not adequately addressed the moderating effects of market pressures in an organization's task environment and miss on reconcilability between a subsidiary organization and its CMO. The last section provides a conceptual discussion about organizational performance.

Background: Hierarchical Inter-Organizational Relationships

The dominant theoretical perspectives for examining inter-organizational relationships are exchange theory and resource dependence theory (Levin and White, 1961; Cook, 1977; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Provan, 1984; Oliver, 1990). Both theories predict that organizations seek formalized relationships with other organizations to access resources needed to realize respective goals or objectives (Levin and White, 1961). Thus, exchange behavior is the focus of this theory, defined as voluntary activities between two organizations which has consequences, actual or

and impact for the realization of the firm's strategy (Johnson and White, 1962, p. 588).

Resource dependence theory builds on exchange theory to examine the benefits of trade. Resource dependence theory recognizes that organizations are not self-sufficient and must depend on others but that dependence is not always associated with disadvantageous implications (Aiken and Lipp, 1968; Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978; Berson, 1975). In efforts to secure resources from the environment, organizations develop dependencies on those organizations with which they control critical resources. These dependencies, however, constrain individual organizations in their actions and behaviors. Specifically, organizations become subject to the demands and preferences of those organizations holding critical resources (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978). For example, organizations have been found to modify their practices and structures in response to the demands of those organizations controlling critical resources (Boyd and Whitton, 1981).

The lack of organizational control as a function of interdependencies is important to recognize given that organizations prefer autonomy and independence (Coulcher, 1959; Thompson, 1967; Berson, 1975). Resource dependence theory provides a framework to understand how organizations manage these competing objectives. Specifically, organizations establish formalized relationships with other organizations that strike a favorable balance between the benefits associated with resource acquisition and the costs associated with interdependencies. Thus, an organization's need for critical resources and its valuing of organizational autonomy determine the type of relationship established with other organizations. For example, organizations in critical need of resources are more likely to relinquish autonomy and establish relationships that involve greater interdependencies (Cook et al., 1983).

One of the major advantages of exchange and resource dependence theory is that these perspectives are useful for understanding a variety of relational strategies ranging from interdependence to exchange (Scott, 1987). These theories also recognize that a

Info on org'l legitimacy

broad set of environmental and organizational factors render particular types of relationships more appropriate than others (Cook, 1983; Galaskiewicz, 1985; Oliver, 1991)

The breadth of exchange and resource dependence theory posed difficulties when evaluating the effects of a specific type of IOR. Many of the benefits that are discussed in the literature apply to all types of relationships. For example, IORs may allow an organization to escape the effects of external environmental constraints. In order to do a more in-depth analysis of their structures and functions. Such analyses provide a better understanding about the ways in which particular relationships provide organizations with the ability to gain greater control over internal operations and the management of environmental pressures, and, ultimately, improve its performance.

The type of IOR of interest in this study is a hierarchical interorganizational relationship (H-IOR). An H-IOR is a collective arrangement of multiple organizations where a central managing organization (CMO) holds control authority over two or more subsidiary organizations. These arrangements permit geographically dispersed organizations to combine organizational resources to achieve economies (West and Stam, 1986).

An H-IOR differs from a hierarchical organization or vertically integrated organization in that affiliates are required to maintain a relationship (Baker, Klein, and Magruder-Habed, 1987). Subsidiary organizations can affiliate with an H-IOR on the basis of managerial or leasing contracts, or corporate sponsorship. This allows subsidiary organizations to retain discretion over their own internal operations and in the implementation of the directions established by the CMO. Thus, while subsidiary organizations are coordinated from the top down, complete authority and control is not relinquished to the CMO (Provan, 1984; Jaeger, 1987).

The fact that subsidiary organizations retain some control in an H-IOR is a distinctive feature of the relationship. Because control is held at the level of the CMO and each subsidiary organization, this structure represents a combination of centralized and decentralized control. In the context of an H-IOR, centralized control is achieved in the hierarchical relationship between a subsidiary organization and its CMO. A CMO exercises direct control over each subsidiary organization's activities. For example, a CMO may assume responsibility for developing long-range strategies of the H-IOR and disseminating information about these strategies to each subsidiary organization. The CMO also controls such activities as subsidiary organization selection, policy over the external operating areas of the subsidiaries of the H-IOR. Thus, there is important for organization control mechanisms related to the subsidiary interests in the decision made by the CMO. In this way, for example, each subsidiary organization may have an influence on the development of a strategy within the H-IOR.

The combination of centralized and decentralized control between the CMO and each subsidiary is an appealing aspect of the H-IOR. Subsidiary organizations can benefit from the centralization of control through the existence of a centralized unit that coordinates resources and efforts across subsidiary organizations. For example, a CMO can establish a group of top-level managers subsidiary organizations by representing their collective interests in negotiations with regulatory actors and decision makers (Alexander, 1987). On the other hand, overly centralized structures can also lead to organizational inefficiencies (Scott, 1987). For example, centralized control can limit or even block the flow of information from subsidiaries to the CMO, or pass it through a single centralized unit (Crozier, 1964). Decentralized control alleviates the communication barrier that is caused by passing information through the CMO, but it also creates a risk of coordination problems and duplication of effort of a centralized administrative unit (Jaeger et al., 1987; Bahrami, 1992). Thus, the

of centralized and decentralized control can establish a check and balance system to minimize inefficiencies that are associated with collective structures that are either overly centralized or overly decentralized. If successfully managed, H-IORs may provide subsidiary organizations with greater capacity to manage internal operations and environmental pressures, ultimately improving their performance.

Improving control over internal operations through H-IORs

Effective control over internal operations is achieved when organizations gain the ability to coordinate strategic areas such as product differentiation and focus (Porter, 1986). A subsidiary organization can excel in each of these areas through its affiliation with an H-IOR.

Cost leadership refers to an organization's ability to operate as a low-cost producer. Through a primary H-IOR, subsidiary organizations have the potential to exert lower costs and achieve lower costs are achieved through the exploitation of economies of scale, the adoption of cost-effective strategies and the implementation of standard management practices. Centralized control allows a collective group of organizations to facilitate the pooling of resources and the sharing of expertise and strategies (Dess and Davis, 1995). Thus, a low-cost position is achieved over the result of product and process economies of scale and the implementation of cost-effective management practices (Lippitt and Schmitz, 1984; Gabel, 1984). In addition, centralized control in a relationship can lead to greater coordination and consistency of cost strategies (Aldrich and Meyer, 1985). To maintain a low-cost position, subsidiaries need to be able to identify and adopt cost-effective strategies and processes (Lippitt and Schmitz, 1984). When cost-effective strategies are identified, these strategies may be incorporated into the H-IOR's internal cost strategy. This process can be used as a device to implement

of organizations that is centrally controlled tends to manage organizational units by

Differentiation refers to an organization's ability to enhance its uniqueness in a given market (Porter, 1986). An organization can differentiate itself from other competitors in a given market by seeking an H I O R. Differentiation is achieved by a subsidiary organization if it does itself with the support and help of the CMO. Porter has easily recognized that the achieved differentiation in Dracove's is Stanley, 1991). This subsidiary organization is set apart from other independent organizations in the market by the application with a larger corporate entity. It is important to note that, however, differentiation in the basis of a relationship with an H I O R is defined if a subsidiary organization results in the same market area. However, a CMO may be able to effect differentiation among subsidiary organizations by existing in the segmentation of a market where each targets a distinct market segment (e.g., x_1 and x_2). Thus, a subsidiary organization can differentiate itself from other competing organizations and other subsidiary organizations in the same market area.

Focus refers to an organization's ability to select a resource domain and tailor its competencies and technical knowledge in particular resource domains once CMOs assume responsibility for administrative duties that are common to all subsidiary

activities, such as personnel recruitment and training, thereby allowing subsidiary organizations to focus on daily operating and strategies aimed at increasing market share (Fritman and Gable, 1984).

governing the management of environmental pressures through H-ORs.

As long as IORs tend to operate effectively in a given market, as illustrated by the cases of the UK and the Netherlands, the IORs will continue to be a viable alternative to the traditional banks. In addition to access to other resources and a more diversified portfolio of assets (Merton, Scott 1983; Alexander and Scott 1984), the IORs can originate a variety of new products, which, in turn, can be enhanced through entry into an H-IOR.

One set of pressures experienced by subsidiary organizations are technical (Dill, 1958, Scott, 1987). These pressures refer to factors (e.g., resource scarcity) that can generate a generalized free access to critical resources for developing subsidiaries in a particular market. Such pressures may be very effective, especially if by organizations in a HIR or PHIR. Patten (1984) introduced a HIR or PHIR as a strategy of organizations to gain greater access to critical resources by establishing interdependencies with other subsidiary organizations. Patten (1984) also indicated that subsidiaries can access critical resources from other subsidiary organizations or the CMO (Aiken and Hage, 1968, Alexander and Morrissey, 1988, Miner et al., 1990). At the same time, subsidiary organizations can access other intangible resources from other subsidiary organizations that improve their ability to develop resources in the broader environment. For example, a subsidiary HIR can gain access to a network of other managers that possess information about the environment. In the case of a PHIR, a subsidiary organization can exploit resources in the environment.

Subsidiary organizations can also manage technical pressures in an H IOR through the accumulation of political power (Aldrich, 1979). Often, the exchange of resources for political power is a necessary condition for the development of formal interdependencies. However, a collective arrangement of organizations centrally organized renders greater political power and clout to each subsidiary organization. This political power enables subsidiary organizations to gain greater leverage in the accumulation of resources held by other organizations in the market (Pfeffer and Salancik, 1978, Provan, 1984). For example, subsidiary organizations may achieve greater leverage in negotiations with actors in the environment when they can pool resources and influence through the affiliation with a politically organized group of organizations (Weil and Stern, 1986).

The second set of environmental pressures is institutional. Institutional pressures refer to those pressures that require organizations to comply to prevailing norms and behavioral conventions that these norms and beliefs represent a complex set of rules and behavioral conventions by agents in the environment such as professions and groups, the state, and competitors (Meyer & Rowan 1977, Scott, 1987). By conforming to these conventions, organizations legitimize their behavior, the adoption of "rational" and "proper" practices. If an organization fails to legitimize its practice in a way that is consistent with the prevailing norms and beliefs, it will work to establish its own legitimacy and thus resources (Meyer and Rowan 1977, DiMaggio and Powell 1983, Zucker, 1987).

Organizations demonstrate their legitimacy to other organizations in the environment by conforming to the norms and beliefs of the environment. Scott (1986) and Alexander and Martin (1987) have identified three ways in which organizations can demonstrate their legitimacy. First, organizations exert greater influence over the normative environment, actively incorporate its own

as a legitimate actor (Scott, 1987; Suchman, 1994). Thus, a CMO is considered legitimate within the institutional environment. Given that legitimate organizations are thought to only affiliate with other legitimate organizations, a CMO can confer legitimacy to each subsidiary organization through formal affiliation (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Baum and Oliver, 1990).

The importance of decentralization in an H IOR

The concentration of control in a collective arrangement of organizations does possess limitations. Centralized control can involve the loss of autonomy and flexibility, and a division of organizational authority to various constituent units (Scott and Oliver, 1990). Furthermore, centralized planning by a CMO often results in a failure to fully provide for the unique characteristics of particular markets (Perrow, 1980). It is therefore to take account of the unique characteristics of each subsidiary organization that an H IOR must be able to respond to unique market areas and respond to unique market pressures (Perrow, 1980).

This is associated with centralized control which is characterized by planning and control being concentrated in some central office or unit, which may be a separate office or unit or may be part of the H IOR. In the latter case, the H IOR may be able to access support from other organizations in the context of an H IOR, while also remaining committed to individual interests and responsive to individual needs. The latter is the case for the H IOR in the following four major areas:

First, subsidiary organizations can retain discretion over internal operations and remain committed to their own individual interests. This allows them to modify operations to fit particular needs. For example, an organization can modify their own individual needs and interests. For example, an organization can modify

Critique of the Literature on IORs

From the perspective of exchange and resource dependence theory, organizations enter formal and relationship with the intention of accruing benefits that enhance the organization's performance. However, literature on IORs tends to assume that benefits of formalized relationships are uniform. That is, factors that differentiate the benefits associated with these relationships have been largely overlooked.

Some literature has acknowledged that the effects of IORs are differentiated. For example, several have explored how organizational characteristics moderate the effects of IORs (Cook, 1977; Provan, 1984). Organizational size has been associated with power in exchange relationships in the literature, and power has been found to moderate the benefits of an IOR. For example, large corporations are more capable of negotiating the terms of their relationships into the exchange relationship, and these relationships are only as strong as the power of the person (1962; Cook, 1977; Provan, 1984; Powell, 1986).

Baum and Oliver (1990) lend support that organizational characteristics can moderate the benefits associated with IORs. In addition, they examined the effects of organizational size on the survival of voluntary associations. This study also examined whether particular organizational characteristics moderate the relationship between organizational size and survival. Organizational characteristics representing organizational size were found to moderate the relationship. Organizational size was found to be positively related to survival, but this relationship was moderated by ownership, and performance.

While there is evidence that organizational characteristics can moderate the effects of IORs, other literature has examined the effects of environmental factors on the environment have been largely ignored. For example, resource dependency theory addresses how environmental factors prompt organizations to enter into an IOR, but does not address how organizational characteristics moderate the effects of these relationships.

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